Advanced Regression: Bias and variance trade off and penalised splines

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Principles of non-linear regression

Concepts we cover in this lecture:

- The basics of cross validation
- Bias-variance trade-off in prediction
- Penalised splines

A clarification

Note

Aim of prediction: Define a prediction rule that is accurate, but also generalises to new data.

When performing prediction we split the data into the following three subsets:

- Training data to fit the models
- Validation data to estimate extra parameters of the prediction rule
- Test data to assess the generalisation properties

Training and test data

Assume we have the following data:

- Training data
 - $-y_i$, where $i \in 1, ..., n$
 - $x_i,$ vector of $j \in {1,...,p}$ predictors for observation k
- Test data
 - $-y_k^{\text{Test}}$, where $k \in 1, ..., m$
 - $-x_k^{\text{Test}}$, vector of $j \in 1, ..., p$ predictors for observation k
- We assume the following general model to hold for both training and test data

$$y = f(x) + \epsilon$$

Measuring the quality of fit

1. Based on the training data we build a prediction rule $\hat{f}(x)$

$$\hat{y}_i = \hat{f}(x_i)$$

For example the ordinary least squares prediction rule is defined as

$$\hat{y} = hy = x(x^t x)^{-1} x^t y = x\beta.$$

2. We evaluate the prediction rule $\hat{f}(x)$ (derived from the training data) on the test data x_k^{Test} and obtain the prediction \hat{y}_k^{Test}

$$\hat{y}_k^{Test} = \hat{f}(x_k^{Test}).$$

Mean squared error (MSE)

- It is easy to derive the MSE on the training data, this is equivalent to the residual sum of squares.
- The residual sum of squares do not tell us how well the prediction rule generalises to new data, the test data.

MSE evaluated on the test data

$$MSE = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} \left(\underbrace{y_k^{Test}}_{\text{Observed}} - \underbrace{\hat{f}(x_k^{Test})}_{\text{Predicted}} \right)^2$$

Decomposition into bias and variance

$$E(MSE) = E\left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} \left(y_k^{Test} - \hat{f}(x_k^{Test})\right)^2\right)$$
 (1)

$$=\underbrace{\sigma^2}_{\text{Noise}} + \underbrace{E[\hat{f}(x_k^{Test}) - E(\hat{f}(x_k^{Test}))]^2}_{\text{Variance}} + \tag{2}$$

$$+ \left[E(\hat{f}(x_k^{Test})) - \hat{f}(x_k^{Test})^2 \right] \tag{3}$$

- Noise or irreducible error σ^2
- Bias $[E(\hat{f}(x_k^{Test})) \hat{f}(x_k^{Test})]$

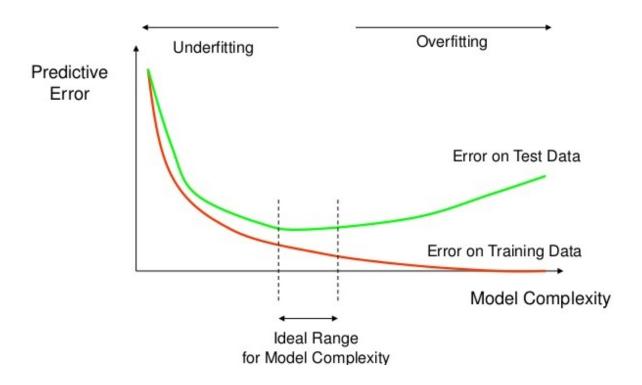
Bias-variance trade-off in prediction

- **Bias**: The error that is introduced by fitting the model.
 - More variables reduce the residual sum of squares.
 - We can reduce bias by adding more variables (higher complexity).
- Variance: The amount by which $\hat{f}(x)$ would change if we estimated it using a different training data set.
 - The more variables we include, the more likely $\hat{f}(x)$ will differ for a new training data
 - We can reduce variance by removing variables (lower complexity)

Overfitting

- Training MSE: We can always reduce the MSE by adding more variables (higher complexity).
- Test MSE: After the model is saturated, we will increase the MSE by adding more variables.

How Overfitting affects Prediction



The problem of overfitting

Overfitting the data

- Complex models may be too precise and tailored only to the specific data used as training data.
- They follow the error or noise too closely.
- Complex models may provide perfect fit and very low MSE on the training data.

- But when used to build a prediction rule for new data they will have a high MSE on the test data.
- Thus, they do not generalise well to new data and do not provide a good prediction rule.

Measuring the quality of fit: Binary outcome

- Quantitative outcomes: Mean squared error (MSE)
- Binary outcome (Lecture 4):
 - Sensitivity and specificity
 - Misclassification error rate: Proportion of misclassified observations
 - Positive predictive value (PPV)

$$PPV + \frac{Number of true positives}{Number of true positives + Number of false positives}$$

$$= \frac{Number of true positives}{Number of positive calls}$$
(5)

Bias-variance trade-off in estimation

- Consider an estimate $\hat{\theta}$ for a parameter θ .
- Examples:
 - Sample mean $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ for the population mean.
 - Sample variance $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \bar{x})^2$ for the population variance.

Bias of an estimate

$$Bias(\hat{\theta}) = E\left(\hat{\theta} - \theta\right)$$

Bias-variance trade-off in estimation

Mean squared error (MSE) of an estimate $\hat{\theta}$:

MSE is the squared average difference between an estimate $\hat{\theta}$ and the true parameter θ .

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = E(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2 \tag{6}$$

$$= (E(\hat{\theta}^2) - 2E(\hat{\theta})\theta + \theta^2) \tag{7}$$

$$=(E(\hat{\theta^2})-\underbrace{E(\hat{\theta})^2+E(\hat{\theta})^2}_{0}-2E(\hat{\theta})\theta+\theta^2) \tag{8}$$

$$= (E(\hat{\theta}^2) - E(\hat{\theta})^2 + (E(\hat{\theta})^2 - 2E(\hat{\theta})\theta + \theta^2)$$
(9)

$$= Var(\hat{\theta}) + (Bias(\hat{\theta}))^2 \tag{10}$$

Bias-variance trade-off in estimation

Also in estimation there is a trade-off between bias and variance

$$MSE(\hat{\theta}) = Var(\hat{\theta}) + \left(Bias(\hat{\theta})\right)^{2}$$

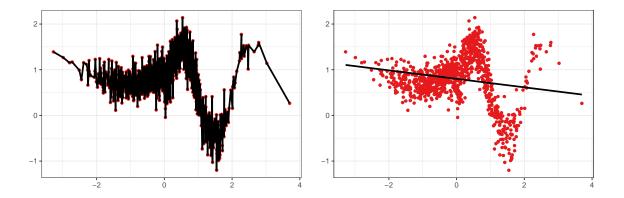
where

- $Var(\hat{\theta}) = E(\hat{\theta}^2) E(\hat{\theta})^2$
- $Bias(\hat{\theta}) = E(\hat{\theta}) \theta = E(\hat{\theta} \theta)$

Many classical techniques are designed to be unbiased (BLUE) or consistent (Maximum Likelihood).

Recall previous problem

- Can you identify issues with bias and variance?
- How can we select the best fit?



Generic considerations

In regression splines, the smoothness of the fitted curve is determined by:

- the degree of the spline
- the specific parameterization
- the number of knots
- the location of knots

No general selection method for number and position of knots

Notice

The type of splines we have seen so far allow the use of standard estimation methods, derived by minimizing the usual least square objective:

$$\sum_i \Bigg(Y_i - \beta_0 - f(x;\beta) + \sum_p \gamma_p z_p \Bigg)^2,$$

where $f(x; \beta) = \sum_j \beta_j b_j(x_i)$ the splines basis function, z a set of other covariates with corresponding coefficients γ .

A penalised approach

A general framework of smoothing methods is offered by generalized additive models (GAMs).

GAMs extends traditional GLMs by allowing the linear predictor to depend linearly on unknown smooth functions. In the linear case:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + f(x; \beta) + \sum_p \gamma_p z_p + \epsilon_i$$

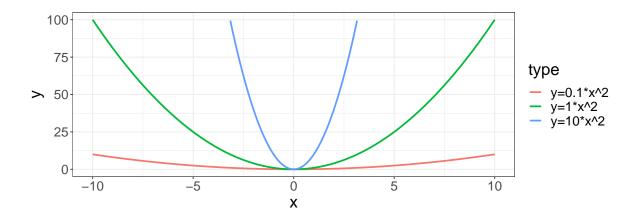
The idea is to define a flexible function and control the smoothness through a penalty term, usually on the second derivative.

Curvature

The second derivative of a function corresponds to the curvature or concavity of the graph. What do you observe?

Warning: Using `size` aesthetic for lines was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.0. i Please use `linewidth` instead.

Warning: Removed 684 rows containing missing values (`geom_line()`).



So if $f(x;\beta)$ is the spline basis function we defined, then we need to somehow introduce its second derivative $d^2f(x;\beta)/dx = f''(x;\beta)$ in the problem and 'scale' it so we have the 'best' fit.

Penalized splines

The objective now is to minimise the 'augmented' sum of squares error:

$$\sum_i \left(Y_i - \beta_0 - f(x;\beta) + \sum_p \gamma_p z_p\right)^2 + \lambda \int [f''(x;\beta)]^2 dx$$

with λ being the smoothing parameter (variance-bias trade off).

Smoothers

Alternative smoothers available, differing by parameterization and penalty:

- Thin-plane splines
- Cubic splines
- P-splines
- Random effects
- Markov random fields
- kernels
- Soap film smooths
- ...

Selecting smoothness

There are different ways of selecting/estimating λ

• The ordinary cross-validation (OCV) criterion, also known as the leave-one-out cross-validation (LOO-CV) criterion, seeks to find the λ that minimizes:

$$\mathrm{OCV}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i (Y_i - g_{\lambda}^{[i]}(x_i))^2$$

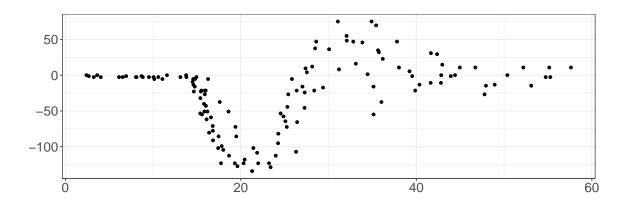
- The generalised cross-validation (GCV) criterion (an improvement of the OCV)
- AIC and BIC
- $\bullet~$ REML and ML

Example 1

A data frame giving a series of measurements of head acceleration in a simulated motorcycle accident, used to test crash helmets.

```
library(MASS)
Attaching package: 'MASS'
The following object is masked from 'package:patchwork':
    area
  library(dplyr)
Attaching package: 'dplyr'
The following object is masked from 'package:MASS':
    select
The following objects are masked from 'package:stats':
    filter, lag
The following objects are masked from 'package:base':
    intersect, setdiff, setequal, union
  data(mcycle)
  mcycle %>% head()
 times accel
   2.4
        0.0
   2.6 -1.3
2
   3.2 - 2.7
   3.6 0.0
   4.0 - 2.7
  6.2 - 2.7
```

Example 1



Any ideas?

Example 1

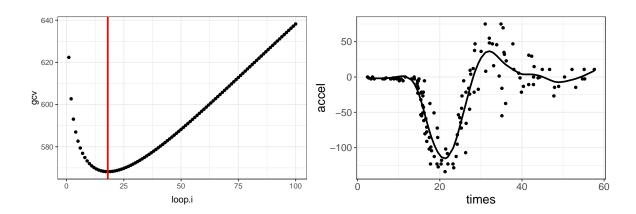
I will use the pspline package to showcase how the selection of λ with GVC works:

```
library(pspline)
```

Warning: package 'pspline' was built under R version 4.3.1

```
smooth.Pspline(mcycle$times, mcycle$accel,
   df = 4, spar = loop.i[gcv %>% which.min()],
   method = 1
) -> mod.loop
ggplot() +
   geom_point(data = mcycle, aes(x = times, y = accel), cex = 1.3) +
   theme_bw() +
   geom_line(aes(x = mcycle$times, y = mod.loop$ysmth), cex = 1) -> p2
```

Example 1



Example 1 using GAM

```
mgcv::gam(accel ~ s(times), data = mcycle) -> mod.gam
mod.gam %>% summary()
```

```
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Approximate significance of smooth terms:

edf Ref.df F p-value

s(times) 8.691 8.972 53.13 <2e-16 ***

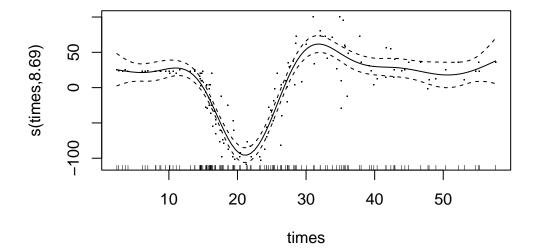
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

R-sq.(adj) = 0.782 Deviance explained = 79.7%

GCV = 548.58 Scale est. = 508.61 n = 133
```

Example 1 using GAM

```
mod.gam %>% plot(se = TRUE, residuals = TRUE, cex = 0.5)
```



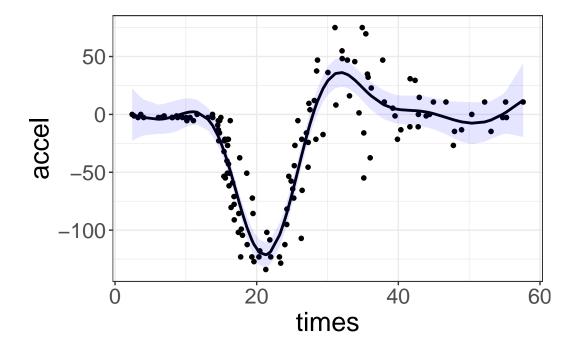
Example 1 using GAM

```
mgcv::gam(accel ~ s(times), data = mcycle) -> mod.gam
predict(mod.gam, data.frame(times = mcycle$times), se.fit = TRUE) -> preds

UL <- preds$fit + 1.96 * preds$se.fit

LL <- preds$fit - 1.96 * preds$se.fit

ggplot() +
    geom_point(data = mcycle, aes(x = times, y = accel), cex = 1.3) +
    theme_bw() +
    geom_line(aes(x = mcycle$times, y = preds$fit), lwd = 1) +
    geom_ribbon(aes(ymin = LL, ymax = UL, x = mcycle$times), fill = "blue", alpha = 0.1) +
    theme(text = element_text(size = 20))</pre>
```



- Temperature is known to increase all-cause mortality rates
- In such studies, we need to carefully account for the temporal aspect (long-term trends and seasonality)

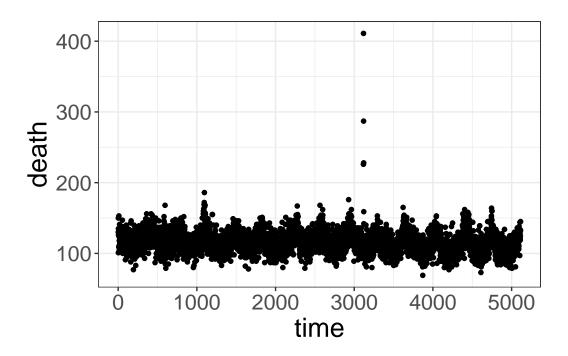
• We also need to properly account for factors that could confound the observed relationship.

GOAL: Use GAMs to explore the effect of temperature on mortality counts in Chicago.

Case-study: Chicago - Temperature and mortality

```
library(dlnm)
  data(chicagoNMMAPS)
  chicagoNMMAPS %>% head()
       date time year month doy
                                     dow death cvd resp
                                                             temp
                                                                    dptp
1 1987-01-01
               1 1987
                          1
                              1 Thursday
                                           130 65
                                                    13 -0.2777778 31.500
2 1987-01-02
               2 1987
                              2
                                  Friday
                                          150 73
                          1
                                                    14 0.5555556 29.875
3 1987-01-03
               3 1987
                          1
                              3 Saturday
                                          101 43
                                                    11 0.5555556 27.375
4 1987-01-04
                          1 4
                                  Sunday
                                               72
               4 1987
                                           135
                                                     7 -1.6666667 28.625
5 1987-01-05
               5 1987
                                  Monday
                                           126
                                               64
                                                    12 0.0000000 28.875
                                                    12 4.444444 35.125
6 1987-01-06
               6 1987
                              6 Tuesday
                                           130 63
   rhum
            pm10
                       о3
1 95.500 26.95607 4.376079
2 88.250
              NA 4.929803
3 89.500 32.83869 3.751079
4 84.500 39.95607 4.292746
5 74.500
              NA 4.751079
6 77.375 40.95607 6.334412
```

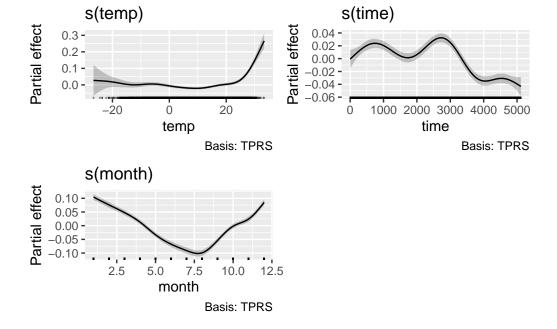
```
ggplot() +
  geom_point(data = chicagoNMMAPS, aes(x = time, y = death), cex = 1.3) +
  theme_bw() +
  theme(text = element_text(size = 20))
```



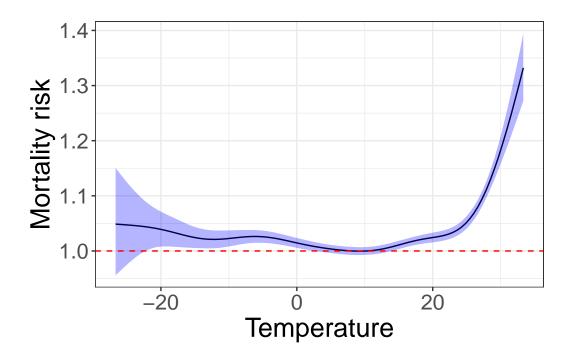
```
mgcv::gam(
  death ~ s(temp) +
    s(time) + s(month) + dow,
  data = chicagoNMMAPS, family = "poisson"
) -> res.mod
summary(res.mod)
```

```
dowTuesday 0.027304 0.004884 5.590 2.27e-08 ***
dowWednesday 0.010857 0.004904 2.214 0.02683 *
dowThursday 0.013197 0.004899 2.694 0.00707 **
dowFriday
           dowSaturday 0.022413 0.004888 4.585 4.54e-06 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Approximate significance of smooth terms:
         edf Ref.df Chi.sq p-value
s(temp) 8.332 8.847 238.9 <2e-16 ***
s(time) 7.705 8.573 330.6 <2e-16 ***
s(month) 8.504 8.934 524.2 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
R-sq.(adj) = 0.256 Deviance explained = 27.4%
UBRE = 0.41407 Scale est. = 1
                            n = 5114
```

gratia::draw(res.mod)



```
gratia::smooth_estimates(res.mod) %>%
 gratia::add_confint() %>%
 filter(smooth == "s(temp)") %>%
 mutate(
   est = exp(est), lower_ci = exp(lower_ci), upper_ci = exp(upper_ci),
   temp = round(temp, digits = 2), rr = est / est[temp == 10.30],
   rr_upper = upper_ci / est[temp == 10.30],
   rr_lower = lower_ci / est[temp == 10.30]
 ) %>%
 ggplot() +
 geom_line(aes(temp, rr)) +
 geom_ribbon(aes(x = temp, ymin = rr_lower, ymax = rr_upper),
              alpha = 0.3, fill = "blue", col = NA) +
 geom_hline(yintercept = 1, col = "red", linetype = "dashed") +
 theme_bw() +
 ylab("Mortality risk") +
 xlab("Temperature") +
 theme(text = element_text(size = 20))
```

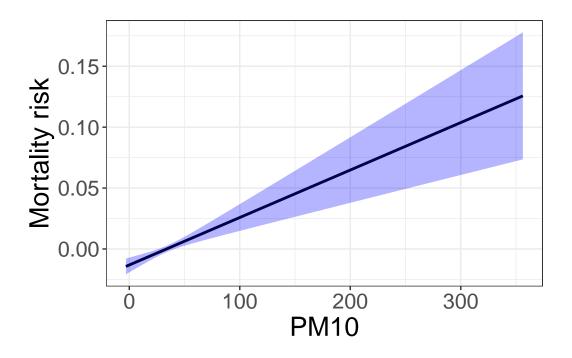


How is the intercept interpreted? How the daily effect?

```
mgcv::gam(
  death ~ s(temp) +
    s(time) + s(month) + dow + s(pm10),
  data = chicagoNMMAPS, family = "poisson"
) -> res.mod1
res.mod1 %>% summary()
```

```
(Intercept) 4.731117 0.003637 1300.968 < 2e-16 ***
           0.030381 0.005079 5.982 2.21e-09 ***
dowMonday
dowTuesday
           dowWednesday 0.007126 0.005095 1.399 0.16186
dowThursday 0.007744 0.005087 1.522 0.12792
dowFriday
                    0.005094
                                2.994 0.00275 **
           0.015253
dowSaturday 0.019715 0.005043 3.909 9.25e-05 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Approximate significance of smooth terms:
         edf Ref.df Chi.sq p-value
s(temp) 8.314 8.840 172.7 < 2e-16 ***
s(time) 7.817 8.639 310.0 < 2e-16 ***
s(month) 8.475 8.926 431.9 < 2e-16 ***
s(pm10) 1.001 1.002 22.5 1.8e-06 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
R-sq.(adj) = 0.256
                   Deviance explained = 27.5%
UBRE = 0.4123 Scale est. = 1
                                 n = 4863
```

Let's add the effect of air-pollution (PM10):



```
res.mod1 %>% summary()
```

Family: poisson Link function: log

Formula:

death $\sim s(temp) + s(time) + s(month) + dow + s(pm10)$

Parametric coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	4.731117	0.003637	1300.968	< 2e-16	***
${\tt dowMonday}$	0.030381	0.005079	5.982	2.21e-09	***
dowTuesday	0.021400	0.005066	4.224	2.40e-05	***
${\tt dowWednesday}$	0.007126	0.005095	1.399	0.16186	
dowThursday	0.007744	0.005087	1.522	0.12792	
dowFriday	0.015253	0.005094	2.994	0.00275	**
dowSaturday	0.019715	0.005043	3.909	9.25e-05	***

```
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Approximate significance of smooth terms:

edf Ref.df Chi.sq p-value

s(temp) 8.314 8.840 172.7 < 2e-16 ***

s(time) 7.817 8.639 310.0 < 2e-16 ***

s(month) 8.475 8.926 431.9 < 2e-16 ***

s(pm10) 1.001 1.002 22.5 1.8e-06 ***

---

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

R-sq.(adj) = 0.256 Deviance explained = 27.5%

UBRE = 0.4123 Scale est. = 1 n = 4863
```

Lag effect

The effect of an exposure might not only affect the same day's health outcome, but also the health outcome in the subsequent days.

Lets explore the temperature lags independently in Chicago.

```
k <- c(0, 1, 3, 5, 10, 20)
res_store <- list()

for (i in 1:length(k)) {
   chicagoNMMAPS$temperature_laggeg <- lag(chicagoNMMAPS$temp, n = k[i])

   mgcv::gam(
    death ~ s(temperature_laggeg) +
        s(time) + s(month) + dow + pm10,
    data = chicagoNMMAPS, family = "poisson"
) %>%
   gratia::smooth_estimates() %>%
   gratia::add_confint() %>%
   filter(smooth == "s(temperature_laggeg)") %>%
   mutate(
    est = exp(est),
```

```
lower_ci = exp(lower_ci),
      upper_ci = exp(upper_ci),
      temperature_laggeg = round(temperature_laggeg, digits = 2),
      rr = est / est[temperature_laggeg == 10.30],
      rr_upper = upper_ci / est[temperature_laggeg == 10.30],
      rr_lower = lower_ci / est[temperature_laggeg == 10.30],
      lag = paste0("lag", k[i])
    ) -> res_store[[i]]
}
do.call(rbind, res_store) %>%
  mutate(lag = factor(lag, levels = c(paste0("lag", k)))) %>%
  ggplot() +
  geom_line(aes(temperature_laggeg, rr, col = lag), lwd = 1) +
  geom_ribbon(aes(x = temperature_laggeg, ymin = rr_lower,
                  ymax = rr_upper, fill = lag), alpha = 0.3, col = NA) +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 1, col = "red", linetype = "dashed", lwd = 1) +
  theme_bw() +
  ylab("Mortality risk") +
  xlab("Temperature") +
  vlim(c(0.7, 1.7)) +
  scale_fill_viridis_d(option = "C") +
  scale_color_viridis_d(option = "C") -> p28
```

- What do you observe?
- Why curves are similar?
- Is independence a valid assumption?

Summary

- Introduction to bias and variance trade off
- Theory and application of penalised splines
- How can we model lags properly?

Questions?

